Proactive Career Behaviors and Subjective Career Success: The Effects of Perceived Organizational Support and National Culture

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Abstract

This study examines whether the relationship between proactive career behaviors and subjective career success is moderated by perceived organizational support and national culture. Hypotheses were tested using multilevel analyses on a large-scale sample of 11,892 employees from 22 different countries covering nine out of GLOBE's ten cultural clusters. As hypothesized, we found a positive relationship between proactive career behaviors and subjective career success. Our results also showed that the moderation effects differ across subjective career success dimensions (financial success and work-life balance). Perceived organizational support and in-group collectivism strengthened the positive relationship between proactive career behaviors and work-life balance, but not the relationship with financial success; whereas uncertainty avoidance weakened the relationship between proactive career behaviors and financial success, but not the relationship with work-life balance. Interestingly, we found as much support for a 'counter-culture advantage' as for culture fit. Overall, our findings support the importance of treating career success as a multidimensional construct, and highlight the complex role of organizational and cultural context in influencing the consequences of proactive career behaviors.

Keywords: Proactive career behaviors, career success, career self-management, organizational career management, national culture

Proactive Career Behaviors and Subjective Career Success: The Effects of Perceived Organizational Support and National Culture

Introduction

In contemporary organizations, employees are increasingly expected to be proactive within the workplace. Proactive behaviors refer to behaviors that are self-initiated, future-oriented and change-inducing (Grant & Ashford, 2008), and include a variety of forms such as voice, taking charge, personal initiative, feedback seeking, and issue selling (Parker & Collins, 2010). This study focuses on one set of proactive behaviors – proactive career behaviors, or career initiative – which refers to self-directed activities individuals engage in when managing their careers (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

There is growing consensus in the careers literature under the auspices of the 'new career model' that career success is increasingly dependent on people's own initiative and proactivity in career management (DeVos, Dewettinck, & Buyens, 2009; Orpen, 1994; Tharenou & Terry, 1998). This is, in part, due to a trend towards shorter and more flexible employment relationships and work designs (Storey, 2000). This has led to traditional conceptualizations of careers as 'a job for life' (Simons, Goddard, & Patton, 2000) or 'upward progression within one or two organizations' (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003) as having less salience. To be successful in a more dynamic, boundaryless career context, individuals are being advised – and expected – to proactively manage their careers (Hall, 1996; Seibert et al., 2001; Verbruggen & Sels, 2010).

Extant research has shown that different kinds of proactive career behaviors are positively related to career success (DeVos et al., 2009; Verbruggen, Sels, & Forrier, 2007). However, this research stream is comprised of a relatively small of number of studies demonstrating the positive

effect of career initiatives (Seibert et al., 2001), career enhancing strategies (Gould & Penley, 1984; Nabi, 1999) and career self-management (Abele & Wiese, 2008) on objective career success (e.g. salary, promotions). Empirical studies on the effects of proactive career behaviors on subjective indicators of career success (e.g. perceived career success, career satisfaction) are much fewer and the findings less conclusive.

We also do not have a sufficient understanding of organizational conditions in which career proactivity produces the most desirable outcomes. The implicit assumption thus far seems to be that proactive career behaviors are equally beneficial regardless of the organizational setting. The 'new career model' emphasizes a joint responsibility for career management between the organization and the individual. However, this can create potential misunderstandings about respective roles and responsibilities, and presents difficult questions regarding the optimal mix between the two (DeVos et al., 2009). Careers research has seldom studied this interaction in terms of their combined effects on career success, producing mixed findings regarding whether they are complementary or act as substitutes (Orpen, 1994; Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefooghe, 2005; Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002).

In addition, previous studies on proactive career behaviors have mainly been conducted in single countries, predominantly in western regions, such as the US (Orpen, 1994; Seibert et al., 2001) and Western Europe (e.g., DeVos et al., 2009; Verbruggen et al., 2007). Whilst this has contributed significantly to our understanding of proactive career behaviors, it is insufficient when drawing conclusions about whether the findings are generalizable across national cultures (cf. Shockley, Ureksoy, Rodopman, Poteat, & Dullaghan, 2016). Since the respondent countries mostly reflect the WEIRD perspective – Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic countries (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010) – where a strong emphasis on and appreciation for self-management is likely more prevalent (Inkson, Gunz, Ganesh, & Roper, 2012), the

positive consequences of proactive career behaviors in these cultures may not be surprising. It remains unclear, however, whether these same kinds of behaviors are equally beneficial in other national culture contexts.

The present study therefore seeks to address the following research question: *to what extent do perceived organizational support and national culture affect the consequences of an individual's proactive career behaviors in terms of their subjective career success?* More specifically, the study examines whether the strength of the relationship between proactive career behaviors and subjective career success depends on: (1) the level of perceived organizational investment in employee development at the individual level, and (2) relevant dimensions of national culture (i.e., in-group collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and performance orientation).

Although subjective career success, which "capture(s) individuals' subjective judgments about their career attainments" (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005, p. 368), has been measured in various ways, there is growing consensus that it should be treated as a multidimensional concept (Carver & Scheier, 2012; Gunz & Heslin, 2005). This is especially true for research on individuals from multiple countries who are likely to use different means of evaluating how successful they feel various aspects of their careers have been (Dries, Pepermans, & Carlier, 2008; Pan & Zhou, 2015; Shockley et al., 2016). We thus focus on the consequences of proactive career behaviors on the perceived achievement of two different dimensions of subjective career success: financial success and work-life balance. We selected these two dimensions since existing cross-cultural career research has shown these to be consistently important around the world (e.g., Briscoe, Hall, & Mayrhofer, 2012b).

We test our hypotheses using multilevel analyses on a large-scale sample of 11,892 employees from a cross-section of organizations, industries and sectors, from 22 different

countries covering nine out of GLOBE's ten cultural clusters. The study contributes to the general proactivity literature by investigating the consequences of proactive behaviors, and more specifically by broadening beyond task and performance-related outcomes to include attitudinal outcomes. Secondly, it adds to our understanding of the kinds of organizational conditions that can facilitate positive outcomes of proactivity, and thereby also contributes to the question in the careers literature about the extent to which individual and organizational career investments act as complements or substitutes. And thirdly, this study adds a much needed multi-cultural perspective to the proactivity literature by examining the influence of culture across a number of western and non-western countries, thereby shedding light on whether the consequences of proactivity are culture-specific, and if so, in what ways.

Theoretical Model and Hypotheses

Proactive Career Behaviors

Proactive career behaviors (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998; DeVos et al., 2009) – which have also been labelled as individual career management (Orpen, 1994; Sturges et al., 2002; Verbruggen et al., 2007), career self-management (Abele & Wiese, 2008; DeVos & Soens, 2008), career enhancing strategies (Nabi, 2003) and career initiative (Seibert et al., 2001) – refer to the self-directed activities employees display with respect to managing their careers (Seibert et al., 2001). Proactive career behaviors include activities such as collecting information about existing or possible career opportunities, searching for feedback about one's performance and competencies, and creating career opportunities through networking and actions aimed at enhancing one's visibility (King, 2004). These behaviors thus allow individuals to make a realistic self-assessment of their own capabilities in light of organizational career opportunities,

and include concrete actions (e.g., networking, self-nomination) undertaken to realize these ambitions (Sturges et al., 2002).

Like other proactive behaviors, two key elements are inherent in proactive career behaviors: anticipation and taking control (Parker & Collins, 2010). Since proactive career behavior involves acting in advance of a future situation – here: the (aspired) realization of one's personal career goals – it comprises a clear anticipatory element. In addition, proactive career behavior implies taking control: instead of reactively responding to changes and opportunities, proactive career behavior implies that people try to self-initiate a desired change in their career (Frese & Fay, 2001; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). In this study, we focus on an individual's behavioral proactivity in career planning, skill development, and consultation with more senior colleagues, which has previously been labelled Enacted Managerial Aspirations (EMA) (Tharenou & Terry, 1998). Despite what this label suggests, these behaviors are considered to be important career management behaviors, whether one aspires to become a manager or not (Parker & Collins, 2010).

A group of studies has demonstrated the positive effect of career initiative (Seibert et al., 2001), career enhancing strategies (Gould & Penley, 1984; Nabi, 1999) and career self-management (Abele & Wiese, 2008) on objective career success (e.g. salary, promotions). However, the findings concerning subjective indicators of success (e.g. perceived career success, career satisfaction) are less conclusive. For instance, whilst subjective career success is positively influenced by career strategies of networking (Nabi, 1999), creating opportunities (Park, 2010) and career planning (Murphy & Ensher, 2001), Nabi's study (1999) also points to the negative influence of individual efforts at developing skills that may be useful for future promotions. Similarly, in terms of career satisfaction, the empirical evidence is mixed, showing either a positive influence of self-directed career behaviors (Abele & Wiese, 2008; Chang Boon Lee,

2002; Raabe, Frese, & Beehr, 2007), or insignificant relationships (DeVos & Soens, 2008). These mixed subjective career success findings indicate a need for further empirical research, especially in organizational and national societal contexts within which employees enact their proactive career behaviors. Addressing these concerns, this paper examines the relationship between proactive career behaviors and subjective career success, and the moderating influence of perceived organizational support and national culture. Figure 1 presents our conceptual model.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Proactive Career Behaviors and Career Success

There are several reasons to argue that an individual's behavioral proactivity in career planning, skill development, and consultation with more senior personnel (Tharenou & Terry, 1998) will contribute to subjective career success. Building on the proactivity literature (Parker & Collins, 2010; Seibert et al., 2001), we base our arguments on proactive career behaviors involving the two key proactivity components, namely taking control and anticipation, and a third particularly important component in proactive career behaviors – information retrieval.

First, proactive behaviors involve taking control, implying that employees with higher levels of EMA proactively take control of their careers. Proactive career behaviors are more likely to be experienced as volitional and self-endorsed, which should satisfy the inner need for autonomy (Gagné & Deci, 2005) and induce feelings of personal success and accomplishment (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). Autonomy perception has been recognized as essential in a range of psychological theories (Gagné & Bhave, 2011), as well as for proactive behavior (Bateman & Crant, 1993), because it emphasizes the self as the locus of causality for one's own behaviors

(deCharms, 1968). In support of this theorizing, feeling in control of one's career has been associated with higher levels of subjective career success (Raabe et al., 2007; Seibert et al., 2001). Although individuals may feel they have more immediate control over their work-life balance (e.g., career choices, access to flexibility practices, job crafting) compared to their financial success, which is also influenced by other key 'gatekeepers' (King, 2004), we nevertheless expect that increased feelings of control that are associated with more proactive career behaviors will be positively related to both dimensions of subjective career success.

Turning to anticipation, acting in advance of a future situation – here, the aspired realization of one's personal career goals – has been shown to be positively related to subjective career success (Verbruggen & Sels, 2010). It is even suggested that working on one's goals can be more important for achieving satisfaction than actually realizing one's goals (Lent & Brown, 2008). In terms of financial success, anticipation will be particularly important due to the likely time lag between investments in proactive career behaviors and outcomes in the form of financial rewards (e.g., pay rise, incentives, upward mobility). With regards to work-life balance, proactive career behaviors in the form of career planning, for example, help individuals to evaluate the work-life consequences of different career choices and act accordingly.

In terms of information retrieval, proactive career behaviors should also influence subjective career success because these behaviors facilitate access to relevant career information and resources that will help them to improve the fit between their aspired and actual career position (e.g., Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Ng et al., 2005). Information retrieval can be seen as an important form of feedback seeking, which can also improve an individuals' reputation and influence within the organization (DeVos & Soens, 2008; Sturges et al., 2005), which in turn influences career satisfaction (Judge & Bretz, 1994). To achieve feelings of financial success, such feedback seeking will be important in helping individuals to understand better the criteria

for financial rewards in a given career/work context. In regard to work-life balance, proactively discussing career aspirations with experienced colleagues will provide individuals with potentially useful advice for how to manage their careers in a more family-friendly way, whilst also providing a platform to influence their working conditions towards a better work-life balance. For these reasons, we present the following baseline hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: An individual's proactive career behaviors are positively related to subjective career success (CS) in the form of financial success.

Hypothesis 1b: An individual's proactive career behaviors are positively related to subjective CS in the form of work-life balance.

Moderating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support

The careers literature reminds us that career success will not depend solely on the proactive behaviors of the individual, but also lies in the hands of influential organizational actors (e.g. supervisors, human resource managers), or what King (2004) refers to as 'gatekeepers'. In reference to the notion of 'sponsored mobility' (Rosenbaum, 1984; Turner, 1960), organizational actors play an important role in shaping an individual's career success. This is because they tend to pay greater attention to those deemed to have high potential and then provide them with sponsoring activities (e.g. training, assignments, promotions, pay rises). To the extent that organizations exhibit discretion in whom they invest, organizational support in the form of organizational career management practices can either help or hinder an individual's own proactive career behaviors.

Drawing on the perceived organizational support literature (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), we examine the role of organizational support in the form of perceived investments in employee development (PIED), defined as an employee's assessment of their organization's

long-term and continuous commitment to helping employees learn to identify and obtain new skills and competencies (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Lee & Bruvold, 2003). We operationalize this at the individual level based on the argument common to much of the recent Human Resource Management literature (e.g., Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Dello Russo, Mascia, & Morandi, 2016) that individual perceptions of organizational support can be more important than the mere presence of organizational career management practices in explaining employee career attitudes and behaviors.

There have been only a handful of studies explicitly examining the combined effects of self-directed career behaviors and organizational career management on individual career outcomes. Two of these studies have found evidence for them acting as substitutes (DeVos et al., 2009; Sturges, Guest, & Mac Davey, 2000). This is explained as being due to individuals engaging more in proactive career behaviors when organizational career management practices are perceived as lacking or insufficient, or that heightened levels of organizational support creates an over-reliance on the organization at the expense of proactive individual behaviors.

However, there is more empirical support for proactive career behaviors and organizational career support practices acting in either complementary (Orpen, 1994; Sturges et al., 2005) or reinforcing (Sturges et al., 2002; Verbruggen et al., 2007) ways. One of the over-arching reasons for this is that most contemporary organizations send signals to their employees that career management is a joint responsibility between employer and employees (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007).

In reference to the key components of proactive behaviors, where PIED is high, individuals are likely to receive encouragement (e.g., from their supervisor or mentor) to engage in further anticipatory behaviors, to take control and seek further information about their career options. The organization is also more likely to be responsive to these personal initiatives and

more likely to provide opportunities to help make these initiatives more successful. Part of this can involve increasing an individual's sense of self-efficacy in managing one's own career (i.e., that their own proactive behaviors are capable of making a difference), taking control in particular. In addition, those who are more proactive, for example in seeking feedback on performance and updating their knowledge and skills, are likely to see more opportunities for where they need organizational support and become better at making use of it. In sum, EMA and PIED can serve to create a positive synergy where one strengthens the perceived benefits of the other. We therefore advance the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 2a:* PIED moderates the relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of financial success such that when PIED is high, the relationship between proactive career behaviors and financial success is stronger.
>
> *Hypothesis 2b:* PIED moderates the relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of work-life balance such that when PIED is high, the relationship between proactive career behaviors and work-life balance is stronger.

Moderating Effect of National Culture

Another contextual factor that may affect the relationship between proactive career behaviors and subjective career success is national culture. Although culture is one of the most enduring constructs in management research, there are many points of contention regarding conceptualizing and measuring culture (Caprar, Devinney, Kirkman, & Caligiuri, 2015). Culture is most frequently defined as a system of values, practices, attitudes and behavioral norms that are shared by members of a societal group and that are passed on from generation to generation (Thomas & Peterson, 2015).

When considering important contextual influences on careers, culture emerges as "a primary candidate" for a "source for [career] differences and peculiarities" (Briscoe, Hall, & Mayrhofer, 2012a, p.7). Culture can influence careers by affecting individual perceptions, attitudes and beliefs, and through the societal legitimization of specific institutional practices, values and norms (Khapova, Briscoe, & Mayrhofer, 2012; Thomas & Inkson, 2007). These two influences, in turn, affect individual career behaviors and various career-related outcomes.

Yet, in research on proactivity more generally and careers specifically, the impact of culture remains understudied. Many of the assumptions underlying research on "prototypical" careers (e.g. careers driven by self-interest) reflect values primarily embraced by Anglo-Saxon societies. An increasing number of voices have been calling for including culture as an important contextual variable in careers research (Briscoe, Hall, & Mayrhofer, 2012b; Kats, van Emmerik, Blenkinsopp, & Khapova, 2010; Noordin, Williams, & Zimmer, 2002). Emerging research has suggested that culture (and related institutional factors) influence career management practices offered in organizations across countries (Lazarova, Dany, & Mayrhofer, 2012) and, at the individual level, studies have started to explore the role of culture on career success (Mayrhofer et al., 2016), career transitions (Chudzikowski et al., 2009), career meanings (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1994) and career commitment (Noordin et al., 2002).

Extending this research, we examine the moderating influence of culture on the relationship between proactive career behaviors and subjective career success. Echoing our earlier discussion of the role of organizational support, we argue that such behaviors will be more valued, and thus more effective in certain cultural environments. Culture provides a basic framework for social interaction and serves as a lens through which individuals interpret others' behavior. Most importantly to our study, it also influences the degree to which the behavior of

individuals, groups, and institutions is viewed as legitimate, acceptable and effective (Noordin et al., 2002).

Building on a 'culture fit' perspective, and in line with recent contributions in the careers literature that recommend that proactive career behaviors should be undertaken wisely and with attention to context (Parker & Liao, 2016), we argue that certain cultures provide more fertile ground for the tenets of proactive career behavior – anticipation, taking control and information retrieval. In such settings, proactive career behaviors are valued and endorsed, and result in increased benefits to individuals. In contrast, in other cultures, attempts to manage one's career proactively may be in conflict with widely held expectations about acceptable behavior in organizations. Acting against established values and norms may be associated with discernable costs for proactive individuals.

Like Rabl et al. (2014), we follow the advice of Zaheer et al. (2012) and focus on a small number of carefully selected cultural dimensions that, based on our review of the limited body of cross-cultural careers research, seemed most relevant in understanding how proactive career behaviors might be differentially effective in different parts of the world. Taken from the GLOBE studies framework (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), we examine the moderating effects of four cultural dimensions: In-Group Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance and Performance Orientation. It is worth noting that these dimensions closely mirror the cultural values dimensions presented by Hofstede (1993), which means our study is well-suited to build upon what is already known about culture's consequences.

In-Group Collectivism

The GLOBE studies (House et al., 2004) define in-group collectivism as the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families. In-

group collectivism resembles closely (both theoretically and empirically) other well-established societal-level conceptualizations of collectivism in the literature and is often seen as the polar opposite of individualism (Hofstede, 1993; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006). The distinction between individualism and collectivism relates to what is perhaps the most fundamental way in which groups differ (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995).

In societies characterized as individualistic (or low on in-group collectivism), individuals view themselves as relatively independent and free to pursue behaviors that benefit them, without extensive consideration of the consequences for the larger collective. Individuals in societies characterized as collectivist (or high in in-group collectivism) view themselves as interdependent with members of the group(s) to which they belong, are concerned about the consequences of their behaviors for their reference group(s), and are more likely to sacrifice personal interests for the benefit of the larger collective. Collectivist societies emphasize shared goals, whereas individualistic societies accept self-centered goals. The emphasis in the former is on preserving the security provided by the group, and in the latter, on autonomy, individual initiative and achievement (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Research on career commitment suggests that in individualistic societies, individuals are more likely to derive their sense of identity from their careers and will frame their career goals in terms of their own career development rather than in terms of advancement in their current organization (Noordin et al., 2002). Individualistic societies encourage the anticipation of career opportunities and self-directed attempts to take control of one's career, which are likely to lead to the pursuit of personal career goals (Chay & Aryee, 1999; Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998). Research suggests that individualistic cultures exhibit greater preference for social recognition, career advancement and merit-based promotions, where individuals are more motivated through competition and report lower normative and affective commitment (Khapova et al., 2012).

Careers are then seen as a long-term individual project, shaped by personal agency, where success is judged by individual achievement and satisfaction (Thomas & Inkson, 2007). In contrast, in collectivistic societies, individuals derive their sense of identity from organizational membership, and emphasize group goals and loyalty to their in-group. In such societies, individual career proactivity could be seen as a challenge to group harmony (Noordin et al., 2002).

Building on the 'culture fit' line of reasoning, these arguments suggest that in societies low on in-group collectivism, individuals are expected and encouraged to take charge of their careers and thus to engage in more proactive career behaviors. In such supportive settings, engaging in proactive career behaviors is likely to be more strongly associated with feelings of career success. This leads us to the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 3a:* In-group collectivism affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of financial success such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and financial success is weaker in countries with higher in-group collectivism.
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> *Hypothesis 3b:* In-group collectivism affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of work-life balance such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and work-life balance is weaker in countries with higher in-group collectivism.

Power Distance

Power distance (PD) is related to individuals' status, authority and power in organizations. High PD cultures exhibit strong hierarchies and control mechanisms, less communication among organizational levels and limited upward social mobility (Hofstede,

1993). Resource access is restricted and information is often localized and hoarded (House et al., 2004). In contrast, in low PD cultures, organizations are decentralized, employees expect to be consulted and ideal authority figures are viewed as resourceful democrats (Hofstede, 1993).

The effects of PD on individual outcomes have received much research attention (Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). PD is likely to influence an individual's approach to achieving subjective career success since the distribution of power and authority within the organization affects perceptions of autonomy, career control and organizational support (Lin, Wang, & Chen, 2013). In high PD countries, power is seen as providing social order, information access is often restricted and upward mobility is limited (House et al., 2004). This leads to a situation where proactive career behaviors are less common (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998). Given that superiors are influential career gatekeepers (King, 2004), and individuals are highly dependent on their career support, individuals tend to look to their bosses for guidance in their pursuit of career progression. Career proactivity, when not encouraged, may backfire in high PD cultures (Aycan & Fikret-Pasa, 2003), and therefore individuals are less likely to be proactive in these cultures. Given the stronger status differential (House et al., 2004) and a likely absence of the belief that "Jack's as good as his Master" (Thomas & Inkson, 2007, p. 456), taking control of one's own career may promise fewer rewards in terms of career success.

Accordingly, we expect that proactive career behaviors fit better in low PD cultures than high PD cultures, and thus these behaviors will be valued more and consequently yield more subjective career success in the former than in the latter.

> *Hypothesis 4a:* Power distance affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of financial success such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and financial success is weaker in countries with higher power distance.

Hypothesis 4b: Power distance affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of work-life balance such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and work-life balance is weaker in countries with higher power distance.

Uncertainty Avoidance

The GLOBE studies define uncertainty avoidance (UA) as the way people in different cultural contexts tend to deal with unforeseen events and change. Countries that score high on UA tend to be more change-aversive and resistant, take only minimal risks, and set up a number of rules and procedures to anticipate and manage the unpredictability of the future. On the other hand, countries that score low on UA tend to be better at accepting change, are more willing to take risks and do not regulate every situation with predetermined norms. Instead, they favor informal interactions (House et al., 2004).

Low UA cultures are less orderly and more informal, demonstrating only moderate resistance to change (House et al., 2004). This opens these societies up to more frequent and radical change, necessitating more individual anticipation. In addition, they leave greater room for individuals to take control of their careers (Briscoe et al., 2012b) as opposed to high UA cultures, which, with their formalized procedures, limit individual self-initiative. High UA cultures are thus likely to hinder the positive effects of individuals' proactive career behaviors insofar as those behaviors would be regarded as threatening the formalized order.

We expect such effects due to the fact that in high UA cultures the pathways to greater financial success as well as work-life balance would be previously defined rather than left open to individuals' anticipation and proactivity in exploring options (Ollo-López & Goñi-Legaz, 2015). An individual's proactive behaviors would not be able to bypass the procedures in place (Fischer,

2008). Thus, individual career success would be less dependent on individual actions, but rather would be based on organizational initiatives for career management and work-life balance. Hence, we formulate the following hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 5a:* Uncertainty avoidance affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of financial success such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and financial success is weaker in countries with higher uncertainty avoidance.
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> *Hypothesis 5b:* Uncertainty avoidance affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behavior and subjective CS in the form of work-life balance such that the relationship between proactive career behavior and work-life balance is weaker in countries with higher uncertainty avoidance.

Performance Orientation

The last cultural dimension we consider is Performance Orientation (PO). Countries that score high on PO value competitiveness, performance improvements and what one actively does over who one is (House et al., 2004). Conversely, countries low on PO value harmony and societal relationships, and view behaviors that may jeopardize this harmony in a negative light, considering them as a potential source of conflict.

We argue that proactive career behaviors characterized by anticipation, information seeking and taking control of one's future (Seibert et al., 2001) fit well with PO in valuing achievement and high standards. In particular, proactive career behaviors are likely to be well-received and rewarded in high PO cultures to the extent that organizations in these countries are more likely to implement a number of practices to promote, monitor and reward individual

contributions (e.g., performance management and formal development initiatives) (Aycan, 2005; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2016).

Since proactive career behaviors are actions that improve the actualization of one's aspirations and goals (Ng et al., 2005), we believe that cultures high in PO would likely reward and grant greater success to those who actively pursue their goals, be they related to the domains of work-life balance or financial success. Our final set of hypotheses is thus:

> *Hypothesis 6a:* Performance orientation affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of financial success such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and financial success is stronger in countries with higher performance orientation.
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> *Hypothesis 6b:* Performance orientation affects the positive relationship between an individual's proactive career behaviors and subjective CS in the form of work-life balance such that the relationship between proactive career behaviors and work-life balance is stronger in countries with higher performance orientation.

Method

Sample and Data Collection

Our individual-level data is from a large, multi-country, cross-cultural research project on contemporary careers. Our survey, which builds on previous qualitative work as part of this research project (Anonymous, 2015[3]), included scales on proactive career behaviors, perceived organizational support, and subjective career success. The questionnaire was translated and back-translated to the local languages of all participating countries following standard procedures (Brislin, 1970). Data collection was conducted by national representatives who are members of

the research collaboration and who used pre-determined screening criteria to achieve desired heterogeneity across respondents in different countries. Each national sample includes individuals who have at least two years of post-educational work experience, and close to equal, tripartite age distribution (under 30; 30-50; over 50 years). Each country sample followed these screening guidelines and targeted at least 400 respondents with 100 from each of the following occupational categories: managers, professionals, clerical/service workers, and skilled workers.

The final sample included 11,892 participants from 22 countries (Argentina, Austria, China, Finland, Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Japan, Malawi, Mexico, Nigeria, Norway, Pakistan, Portugal, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Korea, Switzerland, and the US), representing 9 of the 10 GLOBE cultural regions with only the Middle East cluster not being represented. The average age of the respondents was 39.9 years, they had an average of 15.7 years work experience and were, on average, positioned in the middle of their respective organizational hierarchy (5.56 on a 10-point scale). The gender distribution was equal at 50.0%, with 34.0% categorizing themselves as professionals, 25.8% as managers, 24.0% as clerical/service, and 16.2% as skilled workers. In terms of highest educational level achieved, 10.8% of participants had lower secondary education or below, 34.9% had upper secondary, post-secondary or short-cycle tertiary education, and 54.3% had tertiary education.

Measures

Subjective Career Success

Since our research is cross-cultural we use a newly developed culturally-invariant scale of subjective career success (Anonymous, 2014[1]). The scale is multi-dimensional and features achievement and importance aspects on respective dimensions of subjective career success (cf., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Gunz & Heslin, 2005). In this study we used the

achievement aspect of subjective career success. We chose to examine two dimensions of career success, financial success and work-life balance, since the former can be viewed as more of an extrinsic reward and the latter more intrinsic, as well as to limit the complexity of the model and analyses. For each career dimension, participants were asked to report on a 5-point scale (from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'), 'in regard to this career aspect, I have achieved a level I am happy with'. *Financial Success* (FSUC) was measured by how happy participants were with the level they have achieved in regard to (1) wealth, (2) receiving incentives, perks or bonuses, and (3) steadily making more money in their careers (α=0.741; CR=0.75). *Work-Life Balance* (WLB) was similarly captured by asking respondents to indicate how happy they were in regard to (1) having a satisfying balance between work and family life, (2) having time for non-work interests, and (3) achieving balance between work and non-work activities in their careers (α=0.787; CR=0.79). As reported below, confirmatory factor analyses showed convergent and discriminant validity for both measures.

Proactive Career Behaviors

Proactive career behaviors was operationalized using Tharenou and Terry's (1998) scale for *Enacted Managerial Aspirations* (EMA). Due to the factor loading of one of the items in the original validation study, and in line with previous research (Parker & Collins, 2010), we used five of the six original EMA items which were reported on a 7-point scale ranging from *never* to *very frequently*: (1) I have discussed my career prospects with someone with more experience in the department/organization; (2) I have discussed my aspirations with a senior person in the department/organization; (3) I have engaged in career planning; (4) I have sought feedback on my performance; and (5) I have updated my skills in order to be more competitive for promotion (α=0.854; CR=0.85).

Organizational Support

We measured organizational support using Lee and Bruvold's (2003) construct of *Perceived Investment in Employee Development* (PIED). The construct consists of 7 items on a 5-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Example items include, 'By investing resources in employee development, my organization demonstrates that it actually invests in its employees' and 'My organization invests heavily in employee development (for instance by way of training, programs, and career development)' (α=0.919; CR=0.92).

National Culture

For country-level data on cultural dimensions we used the published country scores from the GLOBE project (House et al., 2004). The cultural measures used reflect reported practices ("as is") and indicate the perceptions of each culture (as opposed to cultural aspiration values, "should be"). Aspiration values refer to the society's ideal values, while practical values measure the society's actual engagement in a particular value. Although the GLOBE study is not without critics (e.g., Hofstede, 2006), the use of the GLOBE measures is widely accepted in cross-cultural research and cross-cultural management scholars commonly use cultural practices rather than cultural aspiration values when attempting to investigate the effects of societal culture on performance and other outcomes (e.g., Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Sully de Luque, 2006). The country data for our targeted cultural dimensions (i.e., in-group collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and performance orientation) was available for 17 of our 22 countries, so the remaining 5 countries (Malawi, Norway, Pakistan, Serbia, and Slovakia) were excluded from this part of the analyses.

Control Variables

We included relevant controls based on the extensive meta-analysis of antecedents of subjective and objective career success by Ng et al. (2005). Specifically, our controls were: *age* in years, *gender* (1=male, 0=female), and *educational level* (1=primary education, 2=lower secondary, 3=upper secondary, 4=post-secondary non-tertiary or short-cycle tertiary, 5=bachelor's degree, 6=master's degree, 7=doctorate). Furthermore, to capture *hierarchical level* in the organization, participants were asked to use a number between 1 and 10 to indicate their relative hierarchical level (1=highest level (CEO or President), 10=lowest level). Since organizational support is one of our moderating variables we also controlled for whether participants are currently a *manager* of other people in their organization (1=yes, 0=no). We also included the *size of the organization* (number of employees) and their *organizational tenure* (number of years working for current organization) as additional controls.

Confirmatory factor analysis and test of common method variance

We first assessed our measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As our data for latent, multi-item variables was nested within countries, we first assessed independence. The ICC(1) for items of our latent variables had the following ranges: PIED (0.047 to 0.1), EMA (0.071 to 0.131), WLB (0.033 to 0.056), and FSUC (0.057 to 0.14). We controlled for the nesting of observations without explicitly modeling factors at individual and country level by using Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Satorra, 1995). The CFA results demonstrate an adequate fit of our measurement model with the data (RMSEA=0.025; CFI=0.955; TLI=0.946; SRMR=0.028).

Since our data was cross-sectional we wanted to examine the possibility that our results were affected by common method variance (CMV). We first performed an additional CFA,

where we allowed all items to load on a single factor. The results of this measurement model indicated a poorer fit with our data (RMSEA=0.08; CFI=0.528; TLI=0.465; SRMR=0.143). We then used a common latent factor and marker variable technique (cf. Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010) to examine the amount of variance due to CMV. Our analyses showed that the variance ranged between 16.2 % (marker variable) and 17.9 % (common factor), which is well below the 50% threshold (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Thus, although we cannot rule out CMV, it does not appear to represent a serious threat to our results.

Based on the CFA we also calculated Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR) (cf. Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE was above the 0.5 threshold for all constructs: 0.62 for PIED, 0.54 for EMA, 0.55 for WLB and 0.5 for FSUC. This is an indication of the convergent validity of our measures. CRs are reported in the measurement section. Finally, we calculated the square root of AVE for all latent variables and compared these values to correlations with other latent variables. All square roots of AVE were higher than the respective correlations, demonstrating support for the claim that our latent variables are distinct.

Analytical Procedure

Our analytical strategy involved incorporating our hypothesized interaction effects at the individual level along with cross-level interactions, while also taking into account that our data was nested, skewed and that we also had some missing values. Since we had constructs at two levels and ICC(1) levels of our dependent variables indicated that variance existed at both levels of analyses (ICC(1) for FSUC was 0.11 and for WLB was 0.051 respectively), we utilized multilevel modeling in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2016). To reduce the number of estimated parameters and to accommodate for the estimation of interaction effects at both the individual level and across levels, we calculated the simple means of our items as manifest variables. The

full information likelihood procedure (FIML) was used to resolve the missing data problem and robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimators were used wherever possible in our analyses to address the issue of skewed data.

We commenced our multilevel modeling by first estimating an intercept only (null) model, followed by a series of random intercept models to estimate the fixed effects of individual-level variables as well as interactions among them. For models where cross-level interactions were examined (i.e., those including the moderation by each cultural dimension), we adopted random intercept and slope models. All independent variables were grand-mean centered before being entered into analyses. Two series of empirical models were estimated. One series of models (1-8) predicted financial success, while the other series (9-16) predicted work-life balance. The models are presented in Tables 2-5.

Results

We present the descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations) for the variables used at both levels in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

In Hypotheses 1a and 1b we argued that an individual's proactive career behaviors (EMA) would be positively related to her/his subjective career success in the form of FSUC (H1a) and WLB (H1b). Model 3 in Table 2 shows that the relationship between EMA and FSUC was positive and statistically significant ($\gamma = 0.171$, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, Model 7 in Table 3 shows

that the relationship between EMA and WLB is also positive and statistically significant (γ = 0.079, $p < 0.01$). Hence, Hypotheses 1a and 1b are supported.

Insert Tables 2 & 3 about here

In Hypotheses 2a and 2b we predicted that PIED moderates the positive relationship between an individual's EMA and subjective career success in the form of FSUC (H2a) and WLB (H2b) such that when PIED is high, the relationship between EMA and subjective career success is stronger. Model 4 in Table 2 shows that the relevant interaction term predicting FSUC, although positive, is not statistically significant (γ = 0.014, p = 0.293). Model 8 in Table 3, on the other hand, shows that the relationship between the interaction term and WLB is positive and statistically significant (γ = 0.027, $p < 0.05$). We can see from Figure 2 that the slope in the high PIED condition is larger (steeper). Thus, Hypothesis 2b is supported, while Hypothesis 2a is not.

Insert Figure 2 about here

The next set of hypotheses concerns the cross-level interactions of the four national culture dimensions and EMA in predicting subjective career success. Hypotheses 3a and 3b predict that the positive relationships between EMA and FSUC (H3a) and WLB (H3b) will be weaker in countries with higher in-group collectivism. Model 9 in Table 4 and Model 13 in Table 5 show the respective results. Contrary to expectations, both interactions have a positive relationship with our outcome variables. While the estimation for FSUC (γ = 0.037) reaches a level of significance below 0.10, for WLB the positive relationship is statistically significant (γ = 0.053, $p < 0.05$). Figure 3 plots this interaction effect. In countries with high levels of in-group

collectivism the relationship between EMA and WLB balance is *stronger* (the slope is steeper) than in those with low levels of in-group collectivism. Thus, neither H3a nor H3b are supported.

Insert Tables 4 & 5 about here

Insert Figure 3 about here

Hypotheses 4a and 4b predict that the positive relationship between EMA and FSUC (H4a) and WLB (H4b) will be weaker in countries with higher power distance. Contrary to our expectations, as depicted in Table 4 (Model 10) and Table 5 (Model 14), the moderated relationships were stronger albeit not statistically significant (γ = 0.066, $p < 0.10$ for H4a; γ = 0.068, p = 0.114 for H4b). Thus, H4a and H4b are not supported.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b state that the positive relationship between EMA and FSUC (H5a) and WLB (H5b) are weaker in countries with higher uncertainty avoidance. Model 11 in Table 2 shows that the relevant interaction term predicting FSUC, as hypothesized, is significantly negative (γ = - 0.023, $p < 0.05$). The interaction term appears in Figure 4. In countries with high levels of uncertainty avoidance the relationship between EMA and FSUC is weaker (the slope is flatter). For WLB the respective interaction term is also negative, but not statistically significant (γ = - 0.026, p = 0.131). Thus, H5a is supported while H5b is not.

Insert Figure 4 about here

Finally, in Hypotheses 6a and 6b we predicted that performance orientation will positively moderate the relationship between EMA and subjective career success. As Model 12 in Table 4 and Model 16 in Table 5 demonstrate, we found a negative effect for FSUC and a positive (as predicted) effect for WLB. However, neither of the estimators reached a statistically significant level (γ = - 0.028, p = 0.247 and γ = 0.030, p = 0.294). Thus, neither H6a nor H6b could be supported.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study set out to examine the extent to which perceived organizational support and national culture affect the consequences of an individual's proactive career behaviors in terms of their subjective career success. The study firstly contributes to the general proactivity literature by showing the positive consequences of proactive behaviors that go beyond task and performance-related dependent variables to include attitudinal and wellbeing-related outcomes, namely the financial success and work-life balance dimensions of subjective career success. Our study thus broadens and adds much needed generalizability to the burgeoning group of studies examining the positive effect of proactive career behaviors on subjective career success (cf. Abele & Wiese, 2008; Raabe et al., 2007; Seibert et al., 2001). Whilst previous studies in this area have focused on the proactive career behaviors of networking (Nabi, 1999), and creating opportunities (Park, 2010), we further demonstrate the importance of individual proactivity in career planning, skill development, and consultation with more senior personnel on financial success and work-life balance across 22 countries.

Turning to the role of organizational context, the study's second main contribution lies in showing how perceived organizational support can enhance the positive outcomes of career

proactivity. It is first worth noting that PIED exhibited a stronger direct relationship with both dimensions of subjective career success than EMA (further analyses showed that this was the case in nearly all 22 country samples). This is a reminder not only that organizational context matters (Rosenbaum, 1984), but that our understanding of the consequences of proactive career behaviors will remain incomplete without taking organization support into account (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). In this regard, our findings show that individual proactivity and organizational support not only complement one another (i.e. one adds a positive effect over and above the other), but also reinforce one another (the effects of EMA are strengthened by PIED). However, the latter does depend on the dimension of subjective career success in question. This may help to explain the mixed findings regarding whether these two forms of career investments reinforce one another or act as substitutes (Sturges et al., 2005; Verbruggen et al., 2007).

More specifically, proactive career behaviors are more effective in increasing perceptions of career success defined in terms of work-life balance in organizations that are perceived as investing more in employee development. The interaction was not significant for perceptions of financial success. One possible explanation for this is that organizations can be more accommodative to individual efforts at striking a better work-life balance – at least the 'work' part – by way of advice, allowing or encouraging job crafting, and flexible work practices, which do not necessarily entail large financial investments. Proactive behaviors targeted towards perceived financial success, on the other hand, may be harder to accommodate due to budget constraints, performance-based pay systems or collective bargaining agreements. Alternatively, whereas work-life balance achievement is more of a 'current state' assessment that is more closely related to recent proactive behaviors and organizational investments, the achievement of financial success can be seen as more of an 'accumulative' assessment where recent proactivity and organizational support are potentially only one part of a longer series of investments. Put

slightly differently, the positive interaction effects of proactivity and organization support on perceptions of financial success may involve a longer lag time than for perceptions of work-life balance. Nevertheless, these findings support treating career success as a multidimensional construct (Shockley et al., 2016) and there is clearly a need for more research into what kinds of proactivity and organizational support are more effective in enhancing different aspects of subjective career success (e.g., learning and development, positive impact).

Thirdly, this study contributes a multi-cultural perspective to the proactivity literature by examining the consequences of career proactivity across a unique, large-scale sample comprising 22 countries from around the world. Counter to our predictions, we found very little support for proactive behaviors being less effective in cultures (within 17 countries) that can be *a priori* described as unsupportive of individuals taking the initiative and trying to assume greater control over their careers. Whilst this leads us tentatively to suggest that the consequences of career proactivity are not culture specific, we can also speculate about these unexpected findings.

Interestingly, our results indicate as much support for a form of 'counter-culture advantage' as they do for culture fit. At least based on the directions of the interaction effects, 'swimming against the tide' in terms of career proactivity in cultures that do not endorse it stands an equal chance of improving one's perceptions of career success. This is particularly the case for achieving work-life balance in countries high on in-group collectivism. One explanation for this particular finding might be that whilst collectivistic cultures may not be supportive of the means for achieving career success (i.e. proactive behaviors), they may be supportive if the ends (e.g. work-life balance) behind these behaviors are valued by that culture (family pride and loyalty). Similar 'counter-cultural' effects at the firm level are reported in the meta-analysis by Rabl et al. (2014) where they found even stronger positive effects for High-Performance Work Systems on performance in national cultures predicted to exhibit a lack of fit with such systems. As their

study concludes, our study too seems to challenge the more conventional view that for individuals to feel subjectively successful, their behaviors must be tailored to the national culture, at least in terms of career proactivity. This interpretation of our results is in line with some of the HRM literature which suggests that evidence supporting the benefits of HRM's cultural fit is not convincing, and that engaging in behavior that is not closely aligned with widely held cultural values may provide a source of competitive advantage (Gerhart & Fang, 2005).

Implications for Practice

Understanding what contributes to individuals' perceptions that they have achieved career success is important. It is important for individuals themselves since it is associated with greater life satisfaction and psychological wellbeing (Nicholson & DeWaal-Andrews, 2005; Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991); and it is important for organizations since subjective career success can lead to lower turnover intentions and more support for organizational change (Nauta, Vianen, Heijden, Dam, & Willemsen, 2009). Our findings present some interesting implications for these two careers stakeholders, who under the auspices of the new careers model are expected to share the responsibility for career success, and thus have to make difficult decisions about how much to rely on and invest in supportive organizational practices (Human Resource Development, career management, supervisor support) on the one hand, and how much to rely on and encourage proactive career self-management on the other (DeVos et al., 2009).

For the individual careerist, our findings suggest that they should certainly engage in proactive career behaviors since they generally pay off on a psychological level, both in terms of traditional, extrinsic criteria like financial success as well as more intrinsic, wellbeing-related criteria like work-life balance. For expatriates and other internally mobile employees, even in countries where heightened proactivity might not be the norm, such behaviors can also be

beneficial. However, given the influential role of organizational support, one important goal of proactive career behaviors should be to seek out an employer that supports and invests in one's personal development.

For organizations, the results demonstrate that despite the emphasis on individual proactivity in the new career model (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005), organizations can still influence in important ways the psychological career sensemaking of employees. The results also imply that the 'joint responsibility' approach can produce meaningful benefits to the employee, but is likely to be more effective in satisfying certain employee career goals (e.g. work-life balance) than others (e.g. wealth accumulation). Nevertheless, organizations should find ways to ensure that parallel organizational and individual investments in career development reinforce one another in ways that avoid any potential breaches of the psychological contract. For organizations that are 'managing' careers across countries and cultures (e.g., multinational firms), this approach may not need to be adjusted extensively to cater for cultural differences.

Limitations and Future Research

This study is subject to certain limitations, which themselves present opportunities for interesting future research. Firstly, whilst CMV does not appear to be significantly present in our data, the study was nevertheless cross-sectional and based on single respondents, which limits our ability to make causal inferences. This, together with our unexpected findings, reinforces the need for more longitudinal and qualitative research that examines the interplay between individual proactive behaviors and organizational support (e.g., Sturges et al., 2002), and how this joint career management process unfolds over time (e.g., Feij, Whitely, Peiró, & Taris, 1995) in different cultural settings.

Secondly, whilst our focus on cultural dimensions and a large number of countries provided a broad overview of the role of culture on the consequences of proactive behaviors, our analyses were not able to shed light on other potentially significant country differences. Echoing some of the recent international careers research (e.g., Briscoe et al., 2012b; Shen et al., 2015), our understanding of career proactivity and its benefits around the world could be further improved via a more fine-grained understanding of national career systems and institutional arrangements. This could be achieved by adopting a country comparative approach to careers (Dany, Mallon, & Arthur, 2003; Mayrhofer, Meyer, & Steyrer, 2007) with an emphasis on context and structure to counterbalance the actor-centric tendency in the proactivity and careers research to date. This could include questions around what 'proactivity' (and e.g. taking control) means in different cultures – seeking feedback on your performance from your supervisor may be a modest step in some cultures, but a very bold step in others. Similar to culture-driven differences that we observe, for instance in the propensity for employee voice due to power distance (e.g., Huang, van Vliert, & van der Vegt, 2005), we believe there is scope for future research to examine more closely the cultural meanings attached to career proactivity and how these might affect career behaviors and outcomes.

Thirdly, the relatively small effect sizes in our models indicate a lot of unexplained variance. At the individual level, one could thus complement our focus on EMA with other proactive person-environment fit behaviors such as job change negotiation (Parker & Collins, 2010), influence tactics such as networking, ingratiation and enhancing one's visibility (Judge & Bretz, 1994; King, 2004), or individual attributes such as work and goal orientation (Heslin, 2005). At the organizational level, there are likely to be other important variables capturing the work/organizational context that will help to understand the effects of career proactivity and their inter-play, such as supervisor support and sponsorship (Ng et al., 2005), developmental network

support at work (e.g., Higgins & Kram, 2001), or the existence of mentoring cultures (e.g., Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Collectively, we see plenty of scope for more theoretical and empirical research at the intersections between proactivity, careers and international human resource management.

NOTES

[1] These 12 authors contributed equally to the article.

[2] The quantitative part of this research endeavour has taken a number of years from conceptualisation through to implementation. During this time we have tried to ensure that we gained the maximum possible through this multi-author approach whilst maintaining the integrity of our research. Many of the authors were involved in conceptualising the research at face-to-face meetings held twice a year for this purpose during 2007-2014. All of the authors were involved in data collection in some capacity in their representative countries. All of the 12 main authors and many of the authors in the 5C collaborative were then involved in the subsequent initial analysis and interpretation of the data in similar bi-annual meetings held during 2014-2018. In between each of the whole-collaborative meetings, the 12 main authors took the group's inputs away to work on them in meetings held face-to-face, via email and Skype. The original text was drafted and revised among the 12 first-named authors before inviting critical input and revisions from the other 31 authors. The final text emerged from the input received from the collaborative and all authors have signed off on the submission. This submitted version of the paper thus reflects the input and views of all 43 authors and all are prepared to be accountable for its content. This process was repeated during the revision and re-submission stage. The large number of authors has facilitated the collection of an extensive, multi-country data set, and has added credibility to both the data and its interpretation that, we believe, could not have been achieved with a smaller group.

[3] This citation has been anonymized to preserve the blind peer-review process.

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Table 1: Descriptive statistics: means, standard deviations (SD) and bivariate correlations among variables

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Level 1												
1	Gender	0.50	0.50										
2	Age	39.89	10.79	.024**									
3	Tenure	8.96	8.814	.046**	.613**								
4	Education	4.48	1.39	.004	-.084**	-.152**							
5	Manager	0.43	1.39	.146**	.113**	.092**	.154**						
6	Hierarchical level	5.56	2.29	-.067**	-.124**	-.110**	-.228**	-.271**					
7	Size of organization	3.67	1.56	.052**	.032**	.122**	.167**	.037**	.084**				
8	EMA	3.97	1.47	.079**	-.248**	-.187**	.191**	.170**	-.101**	.089**			
9	PIED	3.11	0.94	.035**	-.022*	.023*	.047**	.133**	-.097**	.105**	.264**		
10	Work-life Balance	3.64	0.85	-.034**	.082**	.102**	-.068**	-.001	-.053**	-.044**	.049**	.196**	
11	Financial Success	3.29	0.89	.081**	.088**	.089**	.022*	.193**	-.152**	.027**	.168**	.365**	.363**
	Level 2												
1	In-group Collectivism	5.11	0.65										
2	Performance Orientation	4.03	0.47	-.339									
3	Uncertainty Avoidance	4.20	0.71	-.564*	.652**								
4	Power Distance	5.30	0.29	.640**	-.497*	-.616**							

Notes: *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; Level 1 (n=11,445 to 11,892); Level 2 (n=17).

Table 2. Multilevel models predicting financial success

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Level 1				
Manager		.116***	.097***	.082***
Gender		.028	.024***	.026
Size of organization		.032	.014	-.014
Tenure		.032^{+}	.041*	.025
Age		.070**	.106***	.106***
Education		-.008	-.027	-.013
Hierarchical level		-.090^{+}	-.074	-.056
EMA			.171***	.097***
PIED				.316***
EMA*PIED				.014
Level 2				
Intercept	10.998***	11.189***	11.388***	13.294***
Variance components				
Residual Variance (Within)	.720***	.700***	.682***	.618***
Residual Variance (Between)	.089**	.080***	.078**	.058***
R^2 (level 1)		.043	.069	.164
Deviance (FIML)	29767.6	26914.9	26625.6	25516.4
Change in model fit		2852.7	289.3	1109.2
AIC	29773.6	26934.9	26647.6	25542.4

Notes: Standardized coefficients reported for fixed effects; $^{+}$ p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; n(Level 1) = 10,791 to 11,823; n(Level 2) = 22; average cluster size from 490.5 to 537.4.

Table 3. Multilevel models predicting work-life balance

	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
Level 1				
Manager		-.042**	-.051***	-.058***
Gender		-.052***	-.055***	-.054***
Size of organization		-.034**	-.042***	-.056***
Tenure		.071***	.076***	.067***
Age		.040*	.056**	.057**
Education		-.050**	-.059***	-.053**
Hierarchical level		-.041*	-.034*	-.026*
EMA			.079**	.041^{+}
PIED				.170***
EMA*PIED				.027*
Level 2				
Intercept	17.148***	19.309***	19.824***	23.003***
Variance components				
Residual Variance (Within)	.819***	.687***	.683***	.666***
Residual Variance (Between)	.044**	.037**	.035*	.026***
R^2 (level 1)		.021	.026	.052
Deviance (FIML)	31298.5	26726.3	26647.2	26316.1
Change in model fit		4572.2	79.1	331.1
AIC	31304.5	26746.3	26669.2	26342.1

Notes: Standardized coefficients reported for fixed effects; $^{+}$ p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; n(Level 1) = 10,799 to 11,824; n(Level 2) = 22; average cluster size from 490.9 to 537.9.

Table 4. Multilevel models with cross-level interactions predicting financial success

Cultural dimension	Model 9 *In-group collectivism*	Model 10 *Power distance*	Model 11 *Uncertainty avoidance*	Model 12 *Performance orientation*
Level 1				
Manager	.137***	.137***	.137***	.137***
Gender	.034^{+}	.034^{+}	.034^{+}	.034^{+}
Size of organization	-.002	-.003	-.003	-.003
Tenure	.003	.003	.003	.003
Age	.009***	.009***	.009***	.009***
Education	.000	.000	.000	.000
Hierarchical level	-.021	-.021	-.021	-.021
EMA	.064***	.063***	.063***	.062***
PIED	.284***	.284***	.284***	.284***
Level 2				
Intercept	3.176***	3.175***	3.176***	3.177***
Cultural dimension	-.029	-.116	.106^{+}	.143
Cross-level interaction				
EMA*Cultural dimension	.037^{+}	.066^{+}	-.023*	-.028
Variance components				
Residual Variance (Within)	.602***	.602***	.602***	.602***
Residual Variance (Between)	.041**	.041**	.036**	.037**
Variance slope	.002*	.003	.003^{+}	.003^{+}
Covariance	.000	.001	.001	.001
Deviance (FIML)	20605.1	20606.0	20604.3	20605.4
AIC	20637.1	20638.0	20636.3	20637.4

Notes: Unstandardized coefficients are reported; $^{+}$ p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; n(Level 1) = 8,805; n(Level 2) = 17; average cluster size 517.9.

Table 5. Multilevel models with cross-level interactions predicting work-life balance

Cultural dimension	Model 13 *In-group collectivism*	Model 14 *Power distance*	Model 15 *Uncertainty avoidance*	Model 16 *Performance orientation*
Level 1				
Manager	-.122***	-.121***	-.122***	-.122***
Gender	-.072***	-.072***	-.072***	-.072***
Size of organization	-.030***	-.031***	-.031***	-.031***
Tenure	.006***	.006***	.006***	.006***
Age	.004**	.004**	.004**	.004**
Education	-.037***	-.037***	-.037***	-.037***
Hierarchical level	-.009^{+}	-.010^{+}	-.010^{+}	-.090^{+}
EMA	.035*	.034*	.034*	.034*
PIED	.154***	.154***	.154***	.155***
Level 2				
Intercept	3.676***	3.675***	3.676***	3.678***
Cultural dimension	.011	-.113	.038	-.046^{+}
Cross-level interaction				
EMA*Cultural dimension	.053*	.068	-.026	.030
Variance components				
Residual Variance (Within)	.678***	.678***	.678***	.678***
Residual Variance (Between)	.021^{+}	.020*	.02*	.020^{+}
Variance slope	.003*	.004^{+}	.004^{+}	.004^{+}
Covariance	-.001	.000	.000	-.001
Deviance (FIML)	21650.51	21653.234	21653.522	21654.206
AIC	21682.511	21658.234	21685.522	21686.206

Notes: unstandardized coefficients are reported; $^{+}$ p<.10 *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; n(Level 1) = 8,810; n(Level 2) = 17; average cluster size 518.2.

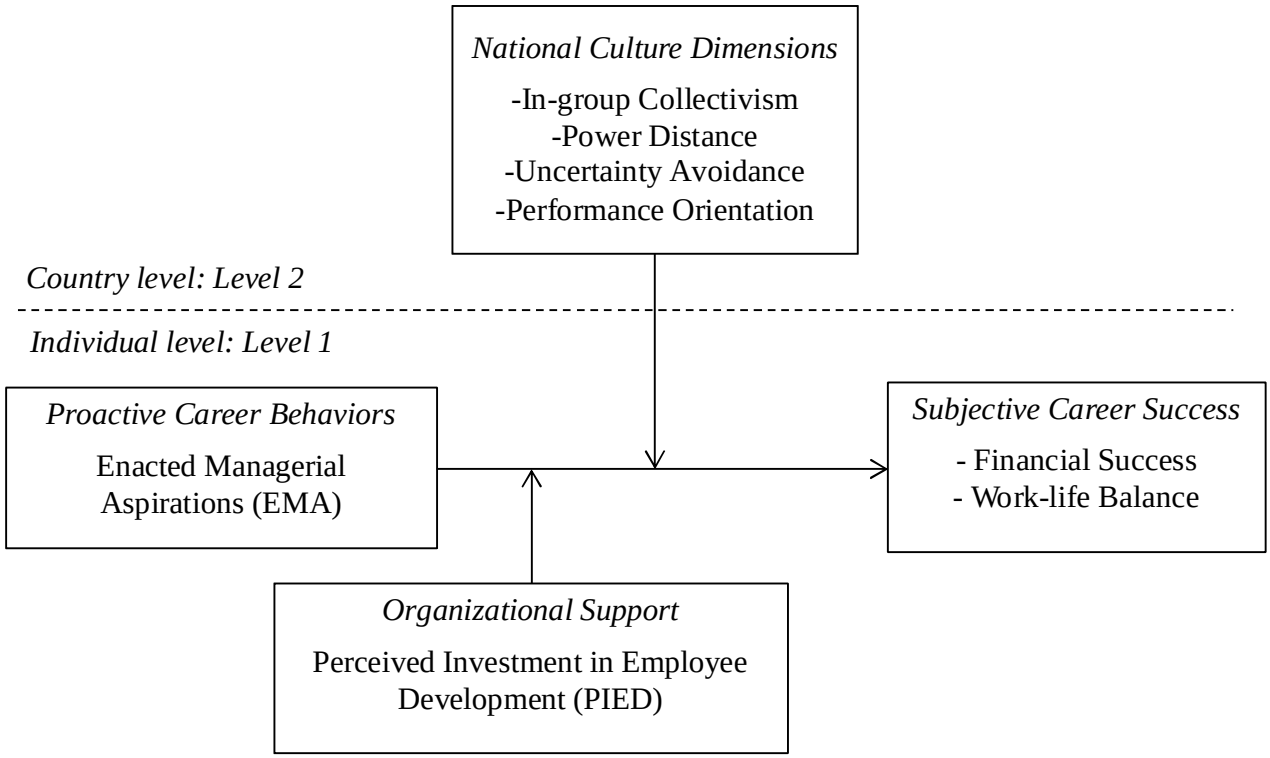

Figure 1. The theoretical model of proactive career behaviors, perceived organizational support, national culture and subjective career success

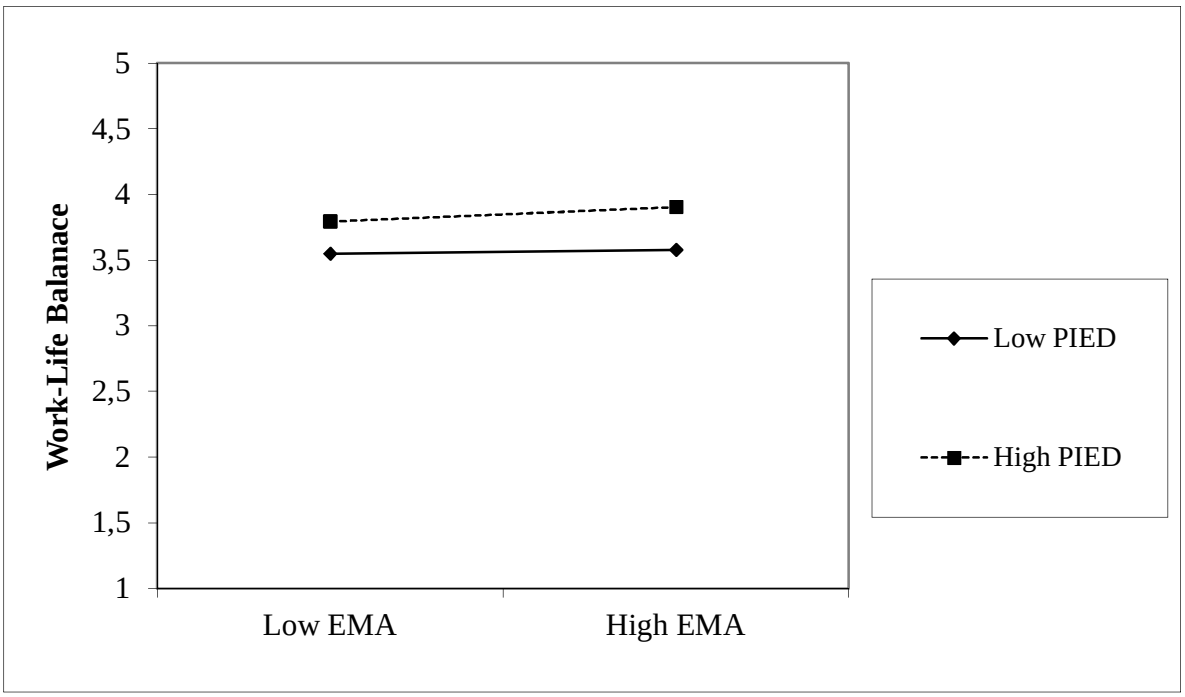

Figure 2. Interaction plot of EMA and PIED in predicting work-life balance

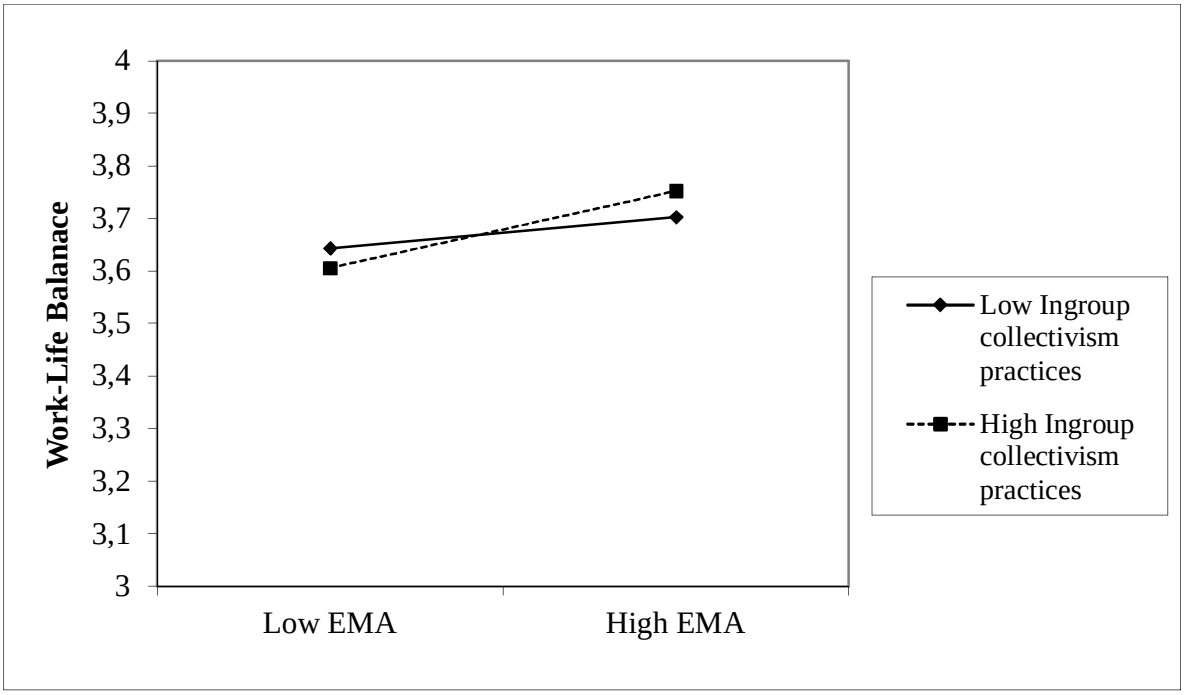

Figure 3. Cross-level interaction plot of EMA and in-group collectivism practices predicting work-life balance

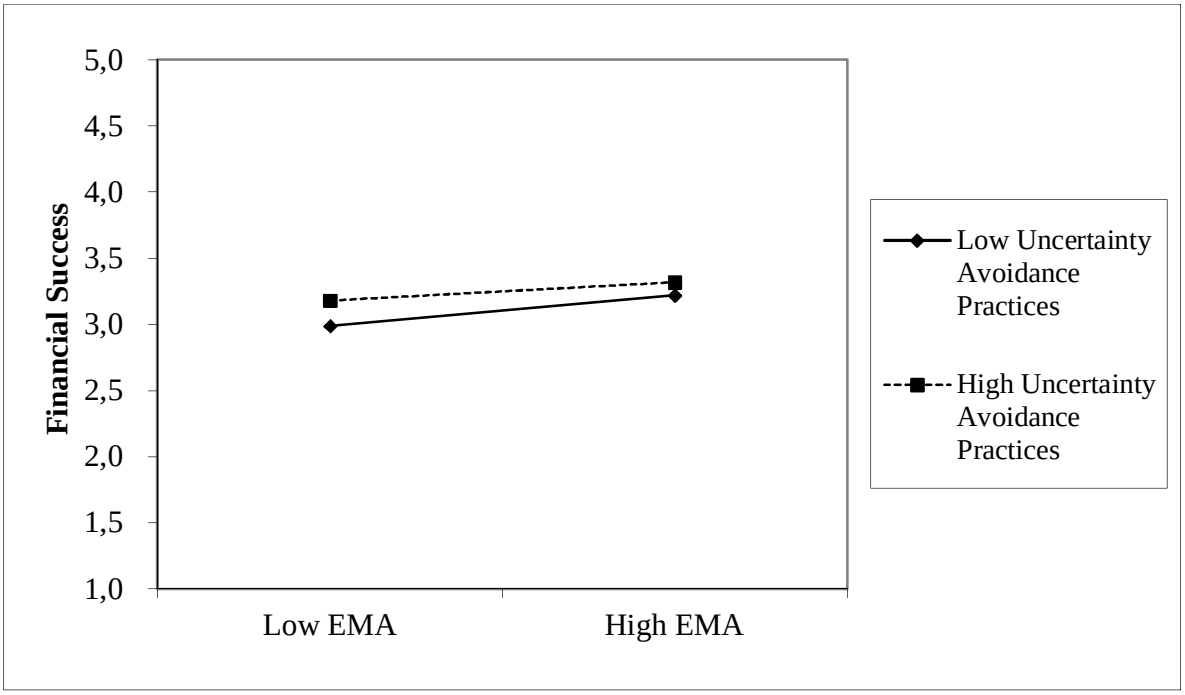

Figure 4. Cross-level interaction plot of EMA and uncertainty avoidance practices in predicting financial success